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ABSTRACT

Suspension rates in Ontario schools are high compared to British figures, low compared to American ones. The first of two sections presents an overview of the current status of school suspensions, including legal considerations, statistics regarding the number of students affected by suspension, characteristics of students who are suspended and the effects of suspension. The second section describes other approaches to student discipline that include inschool withdrawal and suspension programs, alternative interventions to suspension, and preventive approaches. The report indicates that suspensions and withdrawals do not occur in all Toronto Board of Education Schools (TBES), nor do they occur to the same degree in those schools where they are used. Furthermore, suspensions and withdrawals are disproportionately distributed according to gender, age, and grade; they are most frequent among 14 year-old male pupils in grade 9. Recommendations for suspension prevention, strategies of improved discipline, a population chart by grade for TBES, and 73 references are appended. (SI)

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SUSPENSION, ALTERNATIVES TO SUSPENSION AND OTHER APPROACHES TO DISCIPLINE

JO OPPENHEIMER
SUZANNE ZIEGLER

#189

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

- Suspension rates in Ontario schools are high compared to British figures, low compared to American ones.

- Toronto Board of Education suspension figures (1986-87) were approximately the same as Ontario at the elementary level and considerably lower at the secondary level, and have increased only slightly over the last decade. The Toronto suspension rates are .66 (less than 1%) of elementary students suspended in one year; and .99 (about 1%) of secondary students.

- In Toronto, as in Britain, the U.S., and Australia, variation among schools in suspension rates is high. Among Toronto elementary schools, the number of suspensions per school ranged from zero to 41 in 1986-87; at secondary, from zero to 32. About one-half of elementary and one-third of secondary schools reported no suspensions.

- The pattern for single-day withdrawals was very similar to that of suspensions.

- On the average, suspension rates were much higher in schools offering basic level courses than in other secondary schools.

- The most commonly suspended student is a fourteen year old male.
- In British and American studies, race, colour and class have been found to be associated with differential suspension rates. No Canadian data relevant to this issue are available.
- Several investigators have found that disproportionate numbers of low-achieving students experience suspension. In Toronto, relatively high rates of suspension among elementary special education students and in secondary basic level programs are consonant with such findings.
- Several studies indicate that aspects of a school's climate and processes are a more significant determinant of students' behaviour than are the family background and characteristics of the student population. Such climate and process factors include how administrators and teachers communicate, manage, provide leadership, enforce rules, and, especially, share decision-making.
- While suspension has some short-term benefits, the strong conclusion of the available literature is that it is ultimately counter-productive, resulting in missed instruction and stigmatization.

- Many alternatives to out-of-school suspension have been tried. One kind of alternative is in-school suspension, which may occur within the same school building and school day or on Saturday or at a district wide "suspension school."

- Other alternatives abandon the idea of suspension entirely (in or out of school) and depend on counselling, behaviour contracts, or intervention and support centres.

- Preventive approaches are aimed at altering school climate and process variables such that disciplinary problems diminish. They tend to depend heavily on staff development, on improved communication with students and parents and on increasing students' participation in decision-making. Alternative programs and schools can also be viewed as suspension-preventing.

- While evaluation of many of the alternatives to suspension is lacking, the concerned decision-maker can find, in the literature reviewed, models which could be implemented and evaluated.

FOREWORD

This survey of the literature on suspension alternatives is just that, a survey. The papers from which the information is taken often give more details about a program than space would allow in this report. The sources are listed at the end of this report. In particular, the following are suggested:

Garibaldi, Antoine M.(April, 1979) In-school Alternatives to Suspension: Conference Report. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Alternative School Network and Designs for Change. (1984) Not Just Punishment: Discipline in Schools That Work. Chicago, Illinois.

Children's Defense Fund. (1975) School Suspensions: Are They Helping Children? Cambridge, Mass.: Washington Research Project.

Mortimore, Peter; Davies, Jean; Varlaam, Andreas; and West, Anne. (1983). Behaviour Problems In Schools: An Evaluation of Support Centres. London: Croom Helm.

In addition, although not included in this report, a vast literature on classroom management and school discipline exists. For further reading in this area, see bibliography listing for Duke and Jones, (1983).

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Suspension, Alternatives to Suspension and Other Approaches to Discipline

Suspension is an issue complicated by legal complexities and strongly divided views. The research on suspension yields findings which are sometimes inadequate and inconclusive, but which do suggest important relationships, trends, and alternative courses of action. The intention of this report is twofold: 1) to present an overview of the current status of school suspensions, including legal considerations, statistics regarding the numbers of students affected by suspension, characteristics of students who are suspended and the effects of suspensions; and 2) to describe other approaches to student discipline.

PART 1 **School Suspensions**

Orderly discipline of students is considered a primary requirement of schools. That is, students must behave in such a manner that they and their peers can benefit from instruction and other school activities. When a student's behaviour is inconsistent with teacher, school or board interpretations of acceptable school behaviour, then the teacher or a school administrator must make a decision about that student. Some school boards and some schools have published guidebooks which specify responses to student misbehaviour. Often - but not always - suspension is considered a last resort punishment, used only after all reasonable alternatives have been tried without success.

Suspension, in the Canadian context, is a formal disciplinary action carried out by a principal whereby a student is removed from the classroom or school for a specified period of time or, in some cases, until a parent meets with the principal to discuss further disciplinary action, a change in the student's academic program or modification of the student's behaviour. It is distinct from expulsion, which is the permanent removal of a student from school.

The Legal Basis of Suspension in Ontario

In Canada education is provincially mandated. Each province individually regulates discipline by means of an act of the legislature.

Suspensions in Ontario, although an explicit power of public school teachers since 1897 and principals since 1960, have become increasingly bound by legal structure and considerations. The Education Act, 1974, (as revised in 1980) stipulates that:

> 22. (1) A principal may suspend a pupil for a fixed period, not in excess of a period determined by the board, because of persistent truancy, persistent opposition to authority, habitual neglect of duty, the wilful destruction of school property, the use of profane or improper language, or conduct injurious to the moral tone of the school or to the physical or mental wellbeing of others in the school and, where a pupil has been suspended, the principal shall notify forthwith in writing the pupil, his teachers, the parent or guardian of the pupil, the board, the appropriate school attendance counsellor and the appropriate supervisory officer of the suspension, the reasons therefore and the right of appeal under subsection 2.
> 22. (2) The parent or guardian of a pupil who has been suspended or the pupil, where he is an adult, may,

> within seven days of the commencement of the suspension, appeal to the board against the suspension and the board, after hearing the appeal or where no appeal is made, may remove, confirm or modify the suspension and, where the board considers it appropriate, may order that any record of the suspension be expunged. (RSO 1980, c.129, s.22 (2) (1))

The duration of suspension, as specified in the Act, is left to each school board to decide. For example, the Metropolitan Separate School Board has set the maximum number of days of a single suspension episode at ten. The Toronto Board of Education approved the following statement on May 6, 1975:

> A principal shall not suspend a pupil for a period in excess of a period consisting of the greater of:
>
> (a) 30 days, or
> (b) up to the date of the next regular meeting of the Board following the end of the seven-day period during which the parent, guardian or pupil may appeal to the Board from such suspension.

Since suspension is a statutory process in Ontario, all boards must follow the procedure required by law and, because of the legal implications, principals are required by boards to keep detailed, accurate records related to the incident in question and any prior incidents requiring disciplinary action. Each board provides forms and guidelines for principals in line with the provincial requirements.

Furthermore, some school boards have included in their policies and bylaws additional regulations pertaining to suspension. For example, section 38.06 of the Policies, Bylaws

and Regulations of the Board of Education for the City of London states:

> pupils who bring matches or fireworks to school, or who are involved in drug or intoxicant-related offenses may be immediately suspended from attendance at school.

In a new standard procedure of the Toronto Board of Education,[1] suspension is recommended for varying durations for first, second or third incidents of intoxication, possession of alcohol or illicit drugs, or supplying or trafficking in alcohol or illicit drugs.

Suspension in the United States, the United Kingdom and Australia

In order to compare Canadian data on suspension with that of some other English-speaking countries, a brief description of their suspension procedures follows.

In the United States school officials often employ suspension and expulsion, among other options, in dealing with student infractions of school rules (Thomas and Walter, 1985). Implementation of such disciplinary procedures is governed either by federal or state statute, agency or board guidelines, or case law.

In the United Kingdom each school headmaster (principal) is responsible for the internal organization, management and discipline of his school under the general guidance of the Local

---

1 Toronto Board of Education, Report of the Standard Procedure on Drugs Committee, November 1986.

Education Authority (LEA). Discipline and suspension procedures vary from school to school and from LEA to LEA. Present procedures are based partly on case law and partly on informal agreement between the LEA and its teachers. "Suspension" in the U.K. is the functional equivalent of expulsion in Canada: it differs only in that the student's name remains on the enrolment list. The principal characteristic of suspension is that the head-teacher sees no immediate possibility of readmitting the pupil. The LEA, however, is required to offer alternative education. "Exclusion" in the United Kingdom, like suspension in North America, is the temporary removal of a student in order to maintain the smooth running of the school (Galloway, Ball, Blomfield and Seyd, 1982).

Education in Australia, as in Canada, is governed by an act of each state. Suspension in all states is regulated by law (Dettman, 1972).

Comparative Statistics on Suspension

David Galloway and his colleagues reported in 1982 that there had been few systematic studies of the subject of suspension or exclusion, that the figures on prevalence were scarce and that information about suspended and excluded pupils was limited. They state that British statistics on suspension and exclusion are somewhat unreliable because most local education authorities and the Department of Education and Science have been reluctant to collect data because "disruptive students

have become a politically sensitive issue," because suspension and exclusion include a grey area which has been difficult to define, and because before 1977 the reporting procedure was informal and many incidents were never reported (pp. 17-21). One study which was carried out and reported was a four year study in Sheffield, England (1975-1979), which found that exclusions from primary schools never exceeded 0.01 per cent and the peak in secondary schools reached only 0.38 per cent (Galloway, 1980, p. 35). Roger Slee, similarly reports that, even after a 124% increase in suspensions in Victoria, Australia between 1976 and 1981, suspended students represented only 1.1 per cent of total enrolment in secondary schools (Slee, 1986).

In contrast, United States statistics, of slightly earlier vintage, based on the 1972-1973 Office for Civil Rights (OCR) School Survey which collected information from 2,862 school districts throughout the country, indicated that 0.9 per cent of elementary students and eight per cent of the secondary students in all districts surveyed were suspended at least once during the 1972-1973 school year. Nationally, 4.2 per cent of all students were suspended (Kaeser, 1979, p. 469).

While the Australian, British and American figures are not current, and in spite of differences in cultures and legal structures among those countries and between them and Canada, these figures supply some comparative context for local and Provincial data.

In the Province of Ontario, current figures fall between the

relatively low British and relatively high American ones reported from the 1970s. In Ontario, 0.6 per cent of students from junior kindergarten to grade eight were suspended in 1986-1987, while 3.7 per cent at the secondary level were suspended. The Toronto Board of Education reported that a total of 528 students had been suspended during the 1986-1987 school year. The rates of suspension were 0.66 per cent from kindergarten to grade eight (essentially the same as the province as a whole) and 0.99 per cent from grade nine through grade 13 (considerably lower than Ontario overall). See Table 1.

Table 1: RATES OF SUSPENSION, 1986-87: ONTARIO AND TORONTO BOARD OF EDUCATION, BY LEVEL AND GENDER, EXPRESSED AS PER CENTS.

	ONTARIO JK - 8	TORONTO JK - 8	ONTARIO 9 - 13	TORONTO 9 - 13
Male	1.03	1.01	5.53	1.48
Female	0.22	0.28	1.85	0.45
Total	0.64	0.66	3.73	0.99

The Toronto suspension rates in 1986-87 represent an increase over the decade. In 1981-82, the rates were 0.44 per cent at the elementary level and 0.68 per cent at the secondary level. It is not possible to ascertain whether this increase represents a real one, or the result of better reporting.

Inter-school Variation in Suspension Rates

Dettman (1972), the Children's Defense Fund Report (1975), Grunsell (1979), Galloway (1976, 1980), Galloway et al. (1982), Kaeser (1979), Bennett and Harris (1982) and Slee (1986) report that suspensions are unevenly distributed among schools in Great Britain, Australia and the United States. Kaeser found in Ohio that of the 31 districts with suspension rates higher than the national average, 18 districts suspended more than 21 per cent of their secondary students. Four districts suspended more than 20 per cent of all their students, and the district with the highest suspension rate suspended 32 per cent of all of its students (Kaeser, p. 473).

As in Ontario, Kaeser found that "high suspension rates are neither a necessary outcome in large cities nor are they strictly a big-city problem. Only five of the 18 high-rate districts in Ohio were big-city districts. The three districts with the highest suspension rates were small cities" (Kaeser, p.473).. Wu et al. (1982), however, using statistics collected in a U.S. national survey in 1976, found that a higher proportion of students in urban junior and senior high schools were suspended than in suburban junior and senior highs which, in turn, was greater than in rural schools.

Not only were suspension rates found to be unevenly distributed among districts but particular schools and, in some cases certain teachers, were responsible for the majority of

suspensions. Kaeser reports that within the city of Cleveland, which had an overall high rate of suspension (21.4 per cent in 1975-1976), individual senior high schools varied from five per cent to 26 per cent, while junior high schools varied from six per cent to 52 per cent. In Columbus, Ohio, which was below the national average of suspensions, suspensions varied from 0.3 per cent to 20.8 per cent in individual senior high schools, and from 0.4 per cent to 72 per cent of the students in junior high schools. And in Australia for the year 1971 "... in 45 per cent of Western Australian high schools no student was suspended for breaches of school discipline. In a further 48 per cent, between one and five were suspended. Only four per cent of schools reported having had six or more suspensions" (Dettman, 1972, pp. 126-7). Grunsell (1979) observed that in an anonymous LEA in the U.K. three of the fourteen comprehensive schools accounted for 45 per cent of all suspensions and five for 60 per cent. In another example, the Children's Defense Fund cites a report stating that

> In Columbia, South Carolina, a teacher in one school reported 57 students for suspension, while all the other teachers reported 3. In two other schools, the teachers reporting the highest number of students reported 27 and 31 respectively. Less than 10 suspensions were reported by the next highest teachers. At a fourth school, two teachers accounted for all the suspensions - 89 in total (p. 17).

Similarly, in Toronto the number of suspensions per school in 1986-1987 ranged from zero to 41 at the JK to grade eight level and from zero to 32 at the secondary level. At the

elementary level, 63 of 119 schools (53 per cent) reported no suspensions; 38 (about one-third) reported between one and five suspensions; and the four schools with the highest number of suspensions accounted for a total of 135 suspension incidents or 38 per cent of all suspensions at the elementary level, although their total enrolment is only four per cent of the city's. None of the 11 alternative elementary schools reported suspending any students.

Of the thirty-eight secondary schools, 13 (about one-third) had no suspensions; 12 schools (another one-third) had fewer than ten; and five schools had 20 or more suspensions or 36 per cent of all suspensions at the secondary level. The total enrolment of these five schools is 12 per cent of secondary enrolment in the city. Only one of the nine alternative secondary schools suspended any students. Table 2 relates the range of rates and average of suspension by type of school.

Table 2: PERCENTAGES OF SUSPENSION INCIDENTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN TORONTO, 1986-87, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL.

Type of school	Range of Rates	Average
Basic Level Program Schools (6)	1.3 - 6.4%	3.8%
Collegiates (12)	0 - 5.1%	0.7%
Other Secondary Schools (9)	0 - 2.0%	0.7%
Alternative Schools (9)	0 - 3.7%	0.3%
Total (36)	0 - 6.4%	1.0%

In addition to suspensions, the Toronto Board of Education reports single day withdrawals. A survey of four wards in Toronto, one per administrative area, indicated that for 1986-1987 the range of the number of single day withdrawals at the JK to eight level was between zero and 23. An average of 0.8 per cent of elementary school children in these wards experienced one or more single day or half-day withdrawals. Of these 43 elementary schools, 14 (about one-third) reported having no single day withdrawals, including all six alternative schools and one of the largest K - 8 schools in the group. The percentage of students withdrawn varied from zero to five per cent in both K - 6 and K - 8 schools, and from two-and-a-half per cent to seven-and-a-half per cent in 7-8 schools. The variation was not related in any apparent way to school size or urban geography.

At the secondary level, city-wide, a total of five per cent of students were affected by single-day withdrawals in 1986-87, the same rate as in 1981. A breakdown of this figure by type of school is given in Table 3. Of the nine alternative secondary schools, eight reported no single day withdrawals. One of the largest collegiates also reported no single day withdrawals and the collegiate with the highest number of withdrawals was one of the smaller schools. Clearly, size of school and rate of single day withdrawal are not strongly correlated.

Table 3: PERCENTAGES OF WITHDRAWAL INCIDENTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN TORONTO, 1986-87, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL.

Type of School	Range of Rates	Average
Basic Level Program Schools (6)	0 - 27%	17%
Collegiates (12)	0 - 13%	4%
Other Secondary Schools (9)	0 - 10%	6%
Alternative Schools (9)	0 - 6%	0.3%
Total (36)	0 - 27%	5%

There have been many recent attempts to account for the uneven distribution in suspension rates. In Slee's investigation in Australia, structural variables, such as size of school, and intake variables, such as social class, were **not** found to have a significant relationship to suspension rates. David Galloway, in his 1973-1974 study in Sheffield, England, reported that

> the number of children suspended from a school was associated neither with a high incidence of socio-economic hardship, nor with large schools, nor with high persistent absentee rates (Galloway, 1976, p. 40).

These findings were again verified in a later four-year study of exclusions and suspensions in Sheffield schools (Galloway, 1980; Galloway et al., 1982) and also in a study of fifty-one secondary

schools in Leeds, England (McManus, 1987). Whereas neither school size nor disadvantaged catchment areas were relevant variables in Galloway's (1980) study, the schools with the highest exclusion rates tended to have the highest rates of referral to special schools for mentally deficient and maladjusted pupils. However, there was not much overlap between the children referred for special education and those who were excluded (suspended). Furthermore, neither the organization of remedial provision nor policy on ability grouping seemed to be related to exclusion rates (Galloway, 1980, p. 37).

Galloway also stated that the schools varied greatly in reported prevalence of corporal punishment; but again, he found this variable was not related to the number of students excluded. A similarly inconclusive pattern emerged when pupils were asked about their attitude towards and experience of school rules, their interest in school work, and about aspects of the school's pastoral care (guidance) facilities. Galloway concluded that

> exclusion rates, and also rates of referral for special education, were idiosyncratic to each school. This implies that the likelihood of a secondary-school pupil being excluded or referred for special schooling depends at least as much - and probably more - on the particular school he happens to attend, as on any constitutional factors affecting his behaviour, or the difficulties in his family, or possibly even the actual behaviour he presents at school (p. 38).

Suspension rates in Toronto for secondary students in special education are not high. For elementary special education

students, especially those in behavioural classes, they are quite high.

Inter-school variation in suspension and single-day withdrawal rates has been a concern of the Toronto Board of Education for some time. Annual reports on suspensions and withdrawals, by school, have been submitted for the last ten years. In 1981, Board members asked that subsequent reports include "a short explanation by appropriate school principals of an unusually high incidence of disciplinary action" (Toronto Board of Education, 1981, p. 790). In 1982 a report was filed in which the principals of five elementary and two secondary schools explained their 1981-82 suspensions and single-day withdrawals (Toronto Board of Education, 30 November, 1982). Several of the elementary school principals stated that many of the withdrawn and suspended students were from Special Education - Behavioural classes.

Characteristics of Students Who Experience Suspension

Age and Grade

Galloway and his colleagues (1982) found that among students suspended in one year in Sheffield, England, only 14 per cent were attending primary schools; 24 of 57 students were boys in the fifth year of secondary school, the year in which most reach age 16, or legal school-leaving age. Kaeser similarly found that fewer students in the United States are suspended at the elementary level; however, she notes that the largest number of

students suspended in Ohio are at the junior high school level (grades 7 to 9) (Kaeser, p. 473). In a survey of secondary students in Western Australia who had experienced suspension, Dettman found that 87 per cent were in the 13 to 14-year-old age group (Ontario grade 7s and 8s)(Dettman, 1972).

Consistent with these findings, proportionately more older than younger students are suspended in Toronto; after grade 3, rates increase for each year until grade 9, then fall again each succeeding year. The highest rate of suspension is among 14 year-olds. Frequency of student suspension by age (Figure 1) and by grade (Figure 2) are as follows:

Figure 1

Frequency of student suspensions in Toronto Board of Education schools, 1986-87, by age.

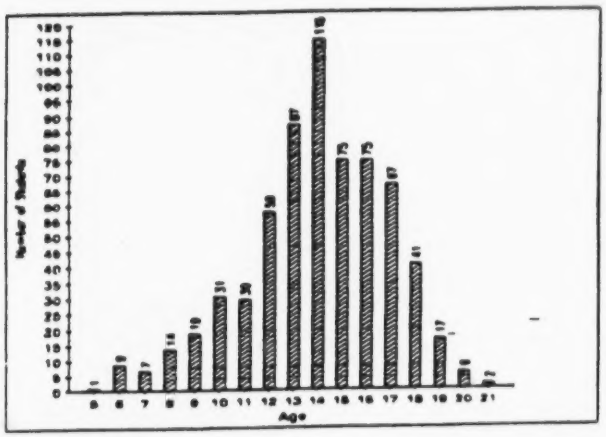
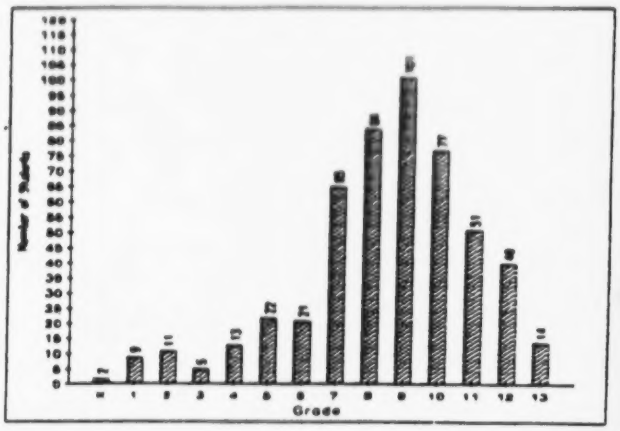


Figure 2

Frequency of student suspensions in Toronto Board of Education schools, 1986-87 by grade.*



* For total population per grade see Appendix C.

Race and Class

There are no statistics available for Canadian suspensions according to race or ethnicity. Grunsell (1979) noted that over half the permanent suspensions in one U.K. LEA in 1977 were of West Indian origin although the West Indian population in the borough as a whole was only 10-12 per cent. In the United States the use of suspension varies considerably by the race of the student (Children's Defense Fund, 1975; Kaeser, 1979; Bennett and Harris, 1982; Moody, 1978; Wu et al., 1982; Parents Union for Public Schools, 1982; Alternative School Network and Designs for Change, 1984). Kaeser states

> Nationally, .5% of white elementary students were suspended compared with 1.5% of the black elementary students. Similarly, black secondary students were suspended about twice as frequently as white secondary students, at the rate of 11.8% compared with 6%. Differential treatment by race also appears in the duration of suspensions. A secondary student who is black was out of school, on average, one day longer than a white secondary student, while a black elementary student was out slightly more than half a day more than a white student (pp. 469-70).

The Children's Defense Fund found that while 4.4 per cent of all children in their national survey were suspended at least once, the rate for black children was 7.3 per cent. At the secondary school level, "black students were suspended more than three times as often as white students: 12.8 percent compared with 4.1 percent" (CDF, 1975, p. 13).

Kaeser found that the disproportionate suspension of black students is a common problem in all but one mid-western state she

surveyed. "In almost every state," she says, "the rate for blacks is at least twice that of the rate for whites" (p. 470). Nonetheless, Kaeser found that racial composition of a district is not an explanation for high district-wide suspension rates. "Districts with high suspension rates may be racially homogeneous or heterogeneous," she states. Furthermore, suspensions took place before and after desegregation of schools.

There are no published studies of the social background of students experiencing suspension in Canada. American data, in contrast to the findings in England, indicate that students in the United States whose fathers do not have a full-time job were more likely to have suspension experience than those whose fathers do; likewise, the students who receive free lunches (an indication of economic hardship) are more likely to have suspension experience (Wu et al., 1982). However, the investigators also found that even when poverty-related problems were taken into consideration, non-white students still experienced more suspension in junior and senior high schools in urban and suburban locations and rural junior highs. This indicates that race was a stronger predictor of suspension than was poverty, although poverty increases the probability of suspension.

Behaviour

Galloway and his colleagues (1982) note that there is considerable disagreement among reports in respect to the profile

of suspended students. York et al. (1972) described suspended pupils as "seriously educationally retarded and psychiatrically disturbed" and furthermore "extraordinarily delinquent and aggressive" whereas Longworth-Dames (1977) found no significant differences when he used Cattell's High School Personality Inventory to compare the personality characteristics of suspended secondary students with "normal" controls.

Dettman et al.(1972) found that in a sample of 73 behaviourally deviant students in Western Australia, 43 per cent had attended four or more primary schools; 18 per cent of the students had repeated a year of schooling at some time in their school career and 12 per cent were currently repeating a year. Forty-three per cent of the subjects went to secondary school with an unsatisfactory report of achievement in the primary school; 36 per cent went to the high school with a known reputation as a troublemaker. Moreover, more than half the extremely deviant students with unsatisfactory primary school records had not, by the end of the first term of high school, been referred to a school guidance counsellor or a professional psychologist for assessment (pp. 165-6), a form of pre-crisis intervention which might be effective prevention.

Kaeser (1979) discovered that a high suspension rate does not mean that large numbers of students are involved in threatening or violent behaviour. Rather, high suspension rates are likely when suspension is used as a response to a wide range of behaviour. She reports that data on suspension in Cleveland,

Ohio during the first semester of the 1977-1978 school year indicate

> that fewer than 6% of the suspensions for secondary students ... were for categories of behavior that are illegal or threatening: arson, trespass, damage to property, theft, possession of weapons, and the use of drugs or alcohol. ... Attendance-related problems including truancy, class cutting, and tardiness make up the single largest category, accounting for about 33% of the secondary suspension and 46% of all senior high suspensions (p. 474).

Similar rates occurred in cities studied by the Children's Defense Fund: suspension for attendance-related problems accounted for 47% of the suspensions in Columbia, South Carolina and 68% in Nashville, Tennessee. While attendance-related suspensions were rare in Sheffield, England, Galloway (1980) also found that actual violence to teachers was seldom reported. Suspension was used most frequently in response to abusive, insolent or threatening behaviour towards a teacher, followed by bullying, unspecified bad behaviour and disobedience. In a recent study in Western Australia, Hyde and Robson (1984) report that over 40 per cent of suspensions were for behaviours classified under the category of persistent disobedience, refusal to obey instructions, and insolence; and only between three and four per cent of suspensions were for violence against teachers (cited in Louden, 1985). The Children's Defense Fund report points out that in the United States "most children who commit acts of violence or vandalism are not suspended. They are expelled." Moreover, they state, "vast numbers of children

suspended have been confused in the public mind with the relative handful of enrolled students who commit a chargeable offense" (p. 19).

In Toronto, while almost all suspensions at the elementary level are reported to have multiple reasons, persistent truancy and the wilful destruction of school property are seldom reported. Persistent opposition to authority, use of profane or improper language, conduct injurious to the moral tone of the school or conduct injurious to the physical or mental wellbeing of others in the school are most frequently cited. At the secondary level, single causes are more often cited for suspensions: there were 176 single reason incidents and 125 multiple reason incidents. Persistent truancy, habitual neglect of duty, the wilful destruction of property and the use of profane or improper language are seldom cited; each accounted for less than 20 per cent of the reasons for suspension. (Fifty-one of the 52 students suspended for truancy were fifteen years or older.) Only persistent opposition to authority, conduct injurious to the moral tone of the school and conduct injurious to the physical or mental wellbeing of others in the school are reasons each given over 25 per cent of the time.

Achievement and Ability

In extensive psychometric assessment of suspended students in the Galloway (1982) study in Great Britain, 76 per cent were found to be reading at least two years below their age level and

almost 60 per cent had an IQ score below 85. These results, according to Galloway, suggest that the suspended pupils might have experienced considerable scholastic difficulties. He found that teacher estimates of the educational attainments of those students affirmed that the students were working below average or very poorly. Ninety-two per cent had been in trouble at school prior to their suspension and 46 per cent were specifically mentioned by teachers as having "an undesirable influence on other pupils" (Galloway, 1982, p. 210).

Wu et al. also reported a disproportionate number of low-achieving students with suspension experience. They found that American students with lower academic performance do, in fact, misbehave more and they are more severely punished. For example, in urban junior high schools, a "C" student is six per cent more likely to be suspended than a "B" student. They cite other studies which indicate that low-achieving students are more likely to be left out of activities, receive few of the rewards of the school and are more likely to rebel (Stinchcombe, 1964; Hargreaves, 1967; Schafer and Olexa, 1971; Polk and Schafer, 1972; Kelly and Pink, 1973; Pink, 1978). Among Toronto secondary schools, it is the basic level program schools, most of whose students have below average elementary school marks, which have the highest suspension and single-day withdrawal rates (See Tables 2 and 3 above).

School Process and Climate Variables Which Affect Suspension Rates

Wu et al. found that while antisocial attitudes are positively correlated with actual suspension, whether a student is suspended or not is as much a matter of the school's policy and practices as it is a matter of the student's behaviour (Wu et al., 1982, pp. 252-5). And according to Slee, in Australia, (and also affirmed in the Children's Defense Fund Report):

> inconsistencies exist between schools in their interpretations of "serious misconduct", "disruption", or "consistent misbehavior over time". This manifests itself in their decisions about suspension and in their subsequent determination of the duration of suspensions. Some schools suspend students longer for class disruption than for assault. Some suspend students for truancy while others do not. Smoking induces suspension in some schools whilst not in others. Disobedience in one school may precipitate suspension, but only a reprimand in another (p. 92).

Slee goes on to say that "the variables which may influence individual principals in applying suspension are many and various. Time of the week, number of discipline problems already dealt with on a particular day, predisposition and humour of the incumbent, and school policy are but a few of these variables" (Slee, 1986, p.92).

As well as there being variation among schools according to student misbehaviour or the perception of it, teachers' concern about disciplinary matters varies greatly from school to school. Taking two extreme sets of responses, Dettman et al. report teachers' opinions varying when asked "Are disciplinary matters a

source of worry to you when you teach?" from 1.4 to 23.5 responding "Yes, very much"; 40.6 to 58.8, "yes a little"; 10.1 to 5.9, "undecided"; and 47.8 to 11.8 , "No not at all" (Dettman, 1972, p. 122). Teachers and administrators also varied within the same school in their perceptions of discipline problems.

Rutter et al. (1979), in their exhaustive study of 12 inner London secondary schools, did not study suspension rates **per se**, but did study behaviours which are typically related to suspension. They found that there were large and statistically significant differences between secondary schools with respect to levels of attendance, children's behaviour in school, delinquency and academic attainment - differences which remained after controlling for the relevant intake variables. That is to say, when characteristics of students at intake were controlled for, the 12 schools in this study differed significantly in relation to student outcomes. The range of pupil behaviour scores was from 1.94 (worst) to 10.56 (best) which indicates very great variation in outcomes among the twelve schools with respect to pupil behaviour. Furthermore, it was found that although verbal reasoning scores and parental occupation were the best predictors of delinquency, it was also true that the school the student attended significantly influenced the probability of delinquency. For example, a student in the top verbal reasoning (ability) group in the school with the worst pupil behaviour was as likely to be delinquent as a student in the bottom verbal reasoning group in one of the schools with better pupil behaviour. Rutter

et al. reported that for comparable groups of boys in the same verbal reasoning and occupational groups the delinquency rate at the worst school was three times as great as that of the best school (p. 80).

Bennett and Harris (1982), searching for the causes of disproportionality of suspensions of male and black students in an American sample, concluded that

> while there is always an interaction between the home and school environments, we cannot place the "blame" at the students' doorstep. The serious disrupters [those suspended more than three times] ... come to school with a strikingly high sense of personal efficacy. In addition to a strong sense of personal efficacy, the serious disrupters come with positive feelings about school, and when they do get into trouble they tend to feel their punishment has been reasonable and fair. What they lack is a sense of personal efficacy concerning the school. In fact, among the disruptive students, no person or group (i.e., superintendent, principal, or school board) emerges as having much influence at school (p. 419).

In relation to the specific issue of race, Bennett and Harris found that the causes are related to an overall orientation of "white predominance" which includes institutional and individual racism. Taking many factors into consideration and having found none that could account for the high levels of suspension among blacks, they concluded that some teachers and administrators are racist (pp. 420-1). Wu et al. came to the same conclusion and further investigated the possibility that replacing white teachers with minority teachers would decrease the disproportionality. They found that in urban and rural communities, the suspension rates are essentially no different

between those blacks who attend schools with more white teachers and those who attend schools with fewer white teachers. In suburban communities the black students who attend schools with more minority teachers have a higher suspension rate than those who attend schools with more white teachers. Wu et al. suggest that racial bias may be institutional in nature; that is, the bias is inherent in at least some of the school systems and is shared by both white and non-white teachers (p. 270).

Beyond the issue of racial disproportionality, differences in school-level outcomes, including behaviour, attendance and academic achievement, have been shown to be related to specific school practices such as the use of a prefect system and the use of corporal punishment. Rutter cites study results which indicate that good discipline in terms of rule enforcement, the involvement of pupils in discipline as shown by the use of a prefect system, and a low use of corporal punishment were most likely to be associated with good attendance (Reynolds and Murgatroyd, 1977; Reynolds et al., 1976); that misbehaviour was worst in schools with formal punishment systems (Heal, 1978); and that delinquency rates tended to be highest in schools with a great deal of corporal punishment (Clegg and Megson, 1968). Rutter and his colleagues state that "other studies have found that firm, quiet reprimands are more effective than angry punitive responses." Wu et al. state, "our data show that more students have been suspended in schools where there is a high degree of administrative centralization [disciplinary decisions

made by administrators without staff consultation] in disciplinary matters" (Wu et al., 1982, p. 261). They further note that the importance of disciplinary centralization is even more apparent in senior high schools than in junior high schools. They write:

> In two of the three subsets of senior high schools, namely the urban senior high schools and those in mostly rural areas, the degree of administrative centralization appears to be the single most powerful predictor of student suspension, more powerful than students' attitudes and behavior. In the suburban schools and rural junior high schools, however, student attitudes and behavior are the most powerful predictor of student suspension, but the degree of centralization is still relatively strong (p. 262).

In schools where disciplinary governance was found to be fair, firm and consistent, suspension rates were lower.

Wu et al. also found one type of teacher perception particularly relevant to suspension; that is, whether or not the teacher perceives students as capable of solving their problems through logical reasoning. As well, they found high suspension rates in schools where "a larger fraction of the entire student body sees the teachers as uninterested." In other words, suspension rates were higher when teachers thought their students incompetent and where students perceived their teachers as uninterested (Wu et al., 1982, p. 256-8).

Rutter et al. found that size of school population, gender ratio, space per pupil, age of buildings, pupil-teacher ratio, class size, availability of teachers for "extra" help, teacher preparation time, the number of detentions, use of prizes for

work, teachers' work conditions, and teacher continuity were of negligible importance in accounting for any variations in behavioural or academic outcomes.

Variables which were strongly and consistently associated with positive behavioural outcomes were, for teachers, the assigning of homework; displaying student work; a high proportion of teaching time and teacher time on topic; co-operative curriculum planning and multiple course responsibility; agreed (school-wide) disciplinary approach; moderate use of punishment; frequent use of praise for work or behaviour; clerical assistance; teacher experience and staff support; supervision of teachers by the principal and the chance to voice opinions in policy decisions. For students, the important variables were: high teacher expectations; extensive use of the school library; periods of silent work; opportunity to hold posts of responsibility and participate in school assemblies or meetings; responsibility for student resources; and peer group stability. Overall school process (all significant variables listed above considered at once) was found to have a very strong and consistent correlation with student behaviour (p. 142).

Delinquency rates were higher when there was a small proportion of the most able children or a high proportion of children from immigrant families in school intakes. However, even within a group of students from an area identified as socially disadvantaged, school rates of delinquency varied significantly, thereby suggesting that school variations were not

simply a product of neighbourhood differences.

Rutter concluded that while the student's own characteristics, his family circumstances and home background, and his peer group constituted substantial influences, analyses showed that school processes constituted the predominant influence on children's behaviour in the classroom and playground (for those behaviours considered in the study) (p. 166). Bickel and Qualls (1980), report that previous studies of suspension in Jefferson County Public Schools (Kentucky) found that factors such as school size, geographic location, racial proportions of the student body, and professional preparation of staff were unrelated to suspension rates. In their study, the single factor found to affect suspension rates was school climate. They wrote:

> There was an apparent consistency in the responses of administrators, teachers, and students in low suspension schools toward the quality of school climate. All groups were significantly more positive than their counterparts in high suspension schools. ...
>
> All evidence indicated that administrators in low and high suspension schools differed significantly in their approaches to communication, management, decision making, and leadership style (p. 85).

Since several studies have indicated that there do not seem to be any reliable predictors of children at risk of suspension, and since it has been found that most forms of clinical treatment have a poor prognosis with children and adolescents who display disruptive, "acting out" behaviour, and furthermore that punishment does not improve student behaviour, it appears that both advisory and treatment services might better focus on the

social mores and educational curriculum of the school rather than on the individual pupil. Thus Wu et al. conclude that "one cannot simply focus on the improvement or the alteration of student's behavior as the sole means of reducing suspension," that "greater attention must be directed toward the policies and the practices by which schools respond or react to the misbehavior of students" (p. 256).

The Effects of Suspension

Advantages

Dettman et al. point out that the major advantage of suspension "would seem to be in its effect of isolating the deviant student from the teaching body rather than the student body. Its greatest effect, therefore, is likely to be an increase in teacher rather than student morale" (p. 159).

Others have argued that suspension forces students to comply with established behavioural rules and also serves the more general educational purpose of teaching students that there are inevitable consequences in violating the rules of society. Another purpose attributed to suspension is that it provides a cooling-off period for the student - a separation from school to relax from the pressures which led to the misbehaviour. It also relieves staff of the responsibility for dealing with the problem for the period of the suspension. A frequently cited objective of suspension is to force parents to appear at school. Most school suspension policies require the notification of parents in

all cases of suspension; many require that parents come to the school to attend a hearing or a readmission conference (Williams, 1979, pp. 3-4).

Disadvantages

The strong consensus of the literature on suspension is that suspension is counterproductive: it causes considerable harm and solves few problems. Garibaldi (1979) states that

> Suspended students lose credit for missed school work and valuable instruction time as well. They are often left unsupervised for the remainder of the day, because a large majority of parents today must work. There is the possibility that students will loiter and be susceptible to engaging in misdemeanours.... They are also likely to be castigated by their friends and stigmatized by their teachers.

Mizell (1978) points out that suspending students from school for attendance offenses (truancy, cutting class, excessive tardiness, leaving campus without permission) is "an irrational and ineffective disciplinary response which only compounds the problems of absence from school"; that "suspension is not the most effective or productive response to a range of non-violent, nonovertly disruptive offenses such as smoking, disrespect, use of abusive language, insubordination, or, as in one school district, public affection"; that "suspensions are not the best method for communicating with parents about the behaviour of their children or for enlisting parental support for the discipline goals of the school"; and that due to the way suspensions are used they are not a deterrent to student

misbehaviour, they do not instil self-discipline, and they do not insure that student misbehaviour will not recur (pp. 213-214).

Moreover, as Williams (1979) indicates, teachers are prevented from instructing the student during the suspension and are faced with the frustration and added responsibility of helping the student readjust after the suspension. "The use of suspension can also create a high level of parent and community resentment for the school's failure to meet the needs of students through less intrusive means," he argues (pp. 9 - 10).

Finally, suspension does not appear to be an effective deterrent to repeated behaviour infractions.

> If the suspension is being used as a punishment for the purpose of deterring extremely deviant behaviour, then it should be realized that it is relatively ineffective. The students most likely to incur this punishment are the students who dislike it least. For these students, suspension may even, inadvertently, become a reward. Gratification may come from being singled out for the apparently ultimate form of punishment. The students's peer group may elevate him into a hero who easily manages to accommodate the worst that the school can do. (Dettman, 1972, pp. 158-159)

Summary

Suspension, as a disciplinary action, is used in many school systems of the world. Overall, little is known about the specific instances of suspension; somewhat more is known about the general uses of suspension. Broadly speaking, we know that: 1) suspension rates often vary substantially from school to school even within a city or district; 2) suspension rates are generally greater in high schools than in elementary schools; 3)

suspension is more prevalent among boys of all ages; 4) suspension rates are disproportional in the United States with regard to race and socio-economic status and in England with regard to colour and ethnicity; 5) suspension rates are often higher among students with lower achievement; and 6) suspension is seldom associated with violent or destructive behaviour.

There were no definite predictors of student suspension, but, apart from the factors listed above, those students who were suspended were more likely 1) to have had a history of poor behaviour; 2) to be working below the grade level for their age; 3) to have repeated a grade; 4) to have been to four or more schools; 5) to have come from a home where the father was not working (in the United States); and 6) to attend a school where suspension rates are high. This last factor is the single highest correlate of student suspension.

Among factors not associated with suspension rates are 1) size of school; 2) gender ratio; 3) space per pupil or class size; 4) age or geographic location of buildings; 5) teacher preparation time; 6) teacher experience and continuity; and 7) racial composition of the student body and race of the teacher.

Although some of the statistics are inconclusive and inconsistent, there are strong indications that certain factors are associated with lower than average suspension rates. School climate appears most often to be the most significant factor. The elimination of apathy, the cultivation of better images of students by teachers, decentralization of disciplinary decision

making, an increase in student participation in school activities, a preventive approach to discipline rather than punishment and isolation have been identified as positive variables. Also contributing to lower suspension rates were: clearly defined expectations of both student behaviour and the course(s) of action for misbehaviour; parent involvement in the school; staff participation in curriculum design; academically and socially balanced school intakes; and careful and consistent screening to be sure students are placed in classes appropriate to their interests, learning abilities and learning styles.

In Ontario suspension rates fall between the relatively low British and the relatively high American rates. The Toronto elementary rates are similar to the Provincial rates and the secondary rates are well below those of Ontario. As is also reported in other places, suspension rates are highest among 14 year-olds as a cohort and suspensions tend to be most frequent in grade nine. Overall, elementary rates are lower than secondary rates and most of the suspensions in elementary schools are in grades seven and eight. Also consistent with other findings, suspension rates are unevenly distributed among schools. Many Toronto schools, including almost all of the alternative schools, reported having no suspensions. Four elementary schools and five secondary schools had relatively high numbers of suspensions, accounting for 37 per cent of the suspensions in the city.

PART 2. **Alternatives to Suspension and Other Approaches to Discipline**

What are the alternatives to suspension? If a decrease in the number of suspensions is the goal, either of three avenues of change can be considered: 1) discontinue out-of-school suspensions and substitute an in-school suspension program; 2) develop an alternative to suspension disciplinary policy or; 3) design and implement programs which incorporate factors which promote positive student behaviour. Of course, a combination of these three may be used.

Mizell (1978) points out that a commitment to design and implement an effective in-school alternative to suspension necessarily implies a recognition of the negative consequences of the frequent use of out-of-school suspension. Since it is an opportunity for a new beginning, he urges that it be preceded by a period of reflection and thought. He suggests the consideration of the following questions:

1. Why has our school used out-of-school suspensions?

2. In what ways have out-of-school suspensions limited our ability to help students and solve problems related to discipline?

3. What group(s) has borne the consequences of our use of out-of-school suspensions, and why? What has been the impact of those suspensions on the persons affected?

4. How have we monitored and evaluated the effect of our use of out-of-school suspension?

5. What have been the effects of our use of out-of-school suspensions that we do not want to repeat in other disciplinary efforts?

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4. How have we monitored and evaluated the effect of our use of out-of-school suspension?

5. What have been the effects of our use of out-of-school suspensions that we do not want to repeat in other disciplinary efforts?

> 6. To what extent has our school's use of out-of-school suspensions been at our own discretion (as opposed to suspensions mandated by school board policy or district office directives)?
>
> 7. What has been our experience regarding the relationship between the behavior of school personnel and the behavior of students? How have we accepted the responsibility for remedying the inappropriate behavior of individuals from both groups?
>
> 8. How do parents, teachers, and students perceive the system of discipline within the school? What are their attitudes and expectations regarding discipline? How do these relate to my own philosophy and practice? (p. 215.)

Once these questions have been considered, the literature describing alternative programs to suspension, of which there is a great deal, can be reviewed. According to Garibaldi (1979), in-school alternatives to suspension are not new and "there are as many types of programs as there are schools" (p. 99). The many alternatives can however be considered in three major groupings: 1) various forms of in-school withdrawal and suspension programs; 2) alternative interventions to suspension; and 3) preventive approaches which promote positive student behaviour. Louden et al. (1985) give warning that approaches which have been adopted to meet the requirements of specific societies may not serve well in others. At the same time, they do recommend surveying significant developments and adopting a range of methods for coping with disruption. They point out that the emphasis varies from one system to another.

In-school Withdrawal and Suspension Programs

M. Hayes Mizell states:

> It is now a truism in American education that the quality of any program is largely dependent upon the commitment of those who plan the program and the leadership and energy they bring to its implementation. That is also the case with in-school alternatives to suspension. In-school alternatives will not work for the benefit of students if they are implemented grudgingly or if they are supervised by individuals who do not believe in the philosophy upon which the program is based (Mizell, 1978, p. 225).

Linda Nielson (1979) reports that some difficulties have been encountered in establishing in-school suspension centres. She cites other reports which state

> Too many students are often assigned at once and some teachers are tardy in providing academic assignments. The number of days assigned to the center may not be contingent on student improvement, but unfortunately may be predetermined by the principal. Failure to notify parents before the assignment is a common mistake, and excessive recidivism for offenses such as truancy too often occurs. Some principals abuse the program by assigning excessive days in the center for minor infractions (p. 443).

Despite these potential problems, she reports that many benefits have been attributed to in-school suspension programs; among them, reductions in suspensions, recidivism, and misconduct and more parental involvement with school personnel. Teachers have expressed satisfaction and an improved image of the school in the community has been reported.

Following is a list of what some schools are trying as in-school alternatives.

A) Time-out

Some form of time-out has been part of classroom discipline for centuries. For minor misbehaviour which is part of normal adolescent conflicts, a short-term time to "cool-off" may be all that is necessary. Time out may be accomplished by having a student sit in a designated seat or "time-out" area until the teacher or student feels that s/he is ready to rejoin the class. The time-out area may also be the principal's or vice principal's office, a guidance counsellor's room or another classroom. Some schools have prepared a room especially as a time-out room. In some cases students don't have to wait to be sent to the time-out room for misbehaviour; they can go when they feel that they need time away from the classroom or teacher.

B) Detention

A more traditional time-out practice is "staying after school" or "staying in for recess". Detention may divert the teacher's and student's attention for the short-term and give both time to think and discuss the situation before further action is taken.

C) In-school Crisis Centre

An in-school crisis centre is a designated room staffed by students and teachers to which students are assigned when they demonstrate poor self-control, as in fighting, defacing property, or using abusive language. Students are referred to the crisis

centre for periods ranging from one period to ten days. Informal teacher-student or student-student conferences may be held. In addition to participating in counselling, students are required to keep up with their regular classroom assignments.

D) In-school Suspension Centre

In-school suspension is a more intense application of the principle behind 'time-out'. It is a process whereby students are withdrawn from class for a significant period, of perhaps a week or two, and effectively removed from contact with their peers. Rather than being removed from the school, the student reports to a designated room in the school and is required to comply with classroom and school discipline. A formal in-school suspension procedure may be followed whereby the parents and the student are informed of the suspension, the reasons for its occurrence and the duration of the suspension. Parents may be invited to discuss the student's behaviour with school administrators. Responsibility for study arrangements continues to be that of the regular teacher(s). In-school suspension involves the total separation of students from their peers, including hours of attendance, staggered breaks and non-participation in social activities. A major focus of attention during this period may be the use of support and resource personnel within and outside the school to provide academic and behaviour assistance.

One school reported having had 185 suspensions during the

first term (September - December) with a total loss of 861 instructional days. After implementing an in-school suspension program, there were only ten students suspended from school during the second term (January to June) with a loss of 53 days. The school claimed that it was highly successful in meeting its objective to reduce the number of out-of-school suspensions. However, 250 students had been assigned to the internal suspension program, representing a total of 1116 days. While the reporter mentioned slight concern over the increased number of internal suspensions, an actual increase in numbers over external suspensions, the overall consensus was that it was better for the children to be punished in school rather than be left at home or free to roam in the community where they might get into more serious trouble (Beaman, 1979).

E) A Saturday Program

Combining the features of detention, guidance and tutoring while avoiding the problems of finding space and extra personnel, a program offered in the school library on Saturday morning disciplines students and provides remedial help. Students are kept in the regular school environment during the week and do not miss class time. They attend special classes conducted by a professional staff member for all or part of a four-hour Saturday session. Students are referred to the program by an administrator. Supervisors provide academic tutoring, individual counselling and conduct special instructional sessions on topics

deemed necessary and advisable by district administrators such as the hazards of smoking, drug and alcohol abuse. This programme is also used to assist senior students who have failed a required subject and students with excessive absentee records.

F) Suspension School

Also discussed in the literature is the district-wide suspension school, a separate school to which students are referred for up to ten days. Teachers who are unable to deal effectively with students' classroom behaviour refer students to the suspension program. Certain behaviours, such as fighting or assaulting a teacher, may result in automatic referral. Students referred to the program are expected to complete all academic assignments which are supplied to the staff of the suspension school (an alternate teacher and a counsellor) by the regular classroom teacher. Students are expected to attend each day, exhibit exemplary classroom behaviour, and to co-operate fully with school officials. In one example, even minor offenses were not tolerated and immediate referral to juvenile court resulted from any inappropriate behaviour. Daily records are kept for each student in the program. A conference with the parent(s), student and school officials is a requisite for return to the regular class.

The Dothan City School System in Alabama (U.S.A) developed a suspension school program in 1977 which reduced the number of out-of-school suspensions from 878 (of a total enrolment of

9,745) in 1976-77 to three in 1977-78 and ten in 1978-79. Eighty-three per cent of all students who have been referred to the program have not returned during the 3 1/2 years the program has been in existence. On an average day 20 to 25 students are in attendance at the suspension school; the number has been as low as ten and as high as 38. The program "enjoys an excellent reputation among teachers, administrators, guidance counselors, well-behaved students, parents, and the community. Only students with a history of disciplinary problems have been heard criticising the program." (Frith et al., 1980, p. 638).

A review of ten programs tried by school districts as alternatives to suspension includes among its conclusions the following:

> Full-time programs that isolate students from their peers for brief periods of time (up to 10 days maximum) tend to be most effective in curbing repeat misbehaviour.
>
> The smooth functioning of the referral process, with one staff member serving as the gatekeeper, is crucial to the success of the in-school alternative program.
>
> The building principal's acceptance of the program is a key to its success. Parents, as a whole, tend to prefer in-school suspension to out-of-school placement.
>
> Evaluation of in-school alternative programs, in terms of both results and program structure and process, is atypical. Where conducted, such evaluations appear mostly **pro forma** and have little impact on the programs themselves. (Chobot and Garibaldi, 1982, p.335).

Alternative Interventions to Suspension

Clarke and McKenzie have argued that "the use of punishment alone to attempt to modify behaviour cannot be supported on either theoretical or practical grounds especially when alternative procedures are available which bring reliably predictable but slower changes in behaviour without unwanted side effects" (Cited in Dettman, 1972, p. 132). Clarizio and Yelon (1967) give the following list of some of the objections to punishment as a technique for behaviour modification: 1) Punishment does not eliminate the response; it merely slows down the rate at which the troublesome behaviours are emitted. 2) This technique serves notice to stop certain negative behaviours; it does not indicate what behaviours are appropriate in the situation. 3) Aggressive behaviours on the punisher's part may provide an undesirable model for the subject. 4) The emotional side effects of punishment, such as fear, tension and withdrawal, are maladaptive. 5) Punishment serves as a source of frustration which is apt to elicit additional maladaptive behaviours. (Cited in Dettman, 1972, p. 132.)

The central objective of the following programs is to provide students with guidance and support, to help them to better understand their behaviour and make changes that will prevent the need for further disciplinary action.[2]

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[2] Many other suggestions are listed, along with references, in Linda Nielsen (1979a).

A) Use of an individualized, specially tailored, on-the-spot behaviour contract

After an incident such as fighting, smoking or cutting classes, the student(s) involved meet with the principal or vice principal to draw up an elaborate, legalistic-sounding contract which requires the student(s) to give her/his word not to repeat the behaviour. A basic format of a contract may be duplicated, with blanks left for description of the specific incident and agreements made with individual students.

B) Behaviour modification

A contract is negotiated between a teacher and the student(s) stipulating a common goal, such as finishing a unit of work without talking, and setting a reward for successful completion. Contracts may be drawn up for single period or term-long assignments. Rewards must be appropriate for the class; some children will work for a candy reward while others, especially secondary students, will work only for free-time activities.

Critics of behaviour modification techniques which change the educational environment by controlling the contingencies of reinforcement have asked whether desirable behaviour will go away when rewards are withdrawn, how students will behave in other settings or if students will ever learn self-discipline. Sapp and his colleagues did find that when rewards were withdrawn students quickly returned to their previous levels of

inappropriate behaviour. Many other studies report a similar regression when rewards are withdrawn. It was also noted that appropriate behaviour was exhibited only when teachers were able to find rewards that the students were willing to work for. In many cases teachers tried rewards without success (ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 1979).

C) School Ombudsperson

An advocate or ombudsperson position can be created, staffed by a member of the professional teaching staff, community youth worker or a specially trained secondary school student. The advocate or ombudsperson acts as a mediator or facilitator between students and teachers and helps students to become aware of their rights and responsibilities under discipline codes.

D) Peer Group Counselling

Peer group counselling takes two forms: a formal program staffed by specialists to which students are referred for a series of classes or a school based program co-ordinated by adult group leaders, run by student leaders on a drop-in basis. The former program is organized by an agency outside of the school and may serve several schools, a district or a school board. Students referred to the program may have been suspended or be in danger of suspension or expulsion. The program consists of 12 to 15 week courses which include skills in handling home and school problems, building a positive self image, managing free time,

making decisions, and developing leadership skills. Students who have been through the program serve as co-leaders with educational specialists.

In-school peer counselling relies on the participation of both natural leaders in the school body and students identified as potential dropouts or those with discipline problems. With the guidance of adult leaders, peer influence is mobilized to reduce the incidence of violence and disruption, truancy and dropouts, referrals to juvenile court and youth involvement with the police. Students participate on a voluntary basis.

A formal peer group counselling program, the Shalom Program in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, claims to have reduced recorded suspensions in one school from 69 in one year to only four the next year (CDF, p. 99). An in-school peer group counselling program in Rock Island, Illinois, operating in one high school and four junior high schools reported that there was a 51.6 per cent decrease in disciplinary incidents. In the high school alone, suspensions were reduced from 253 in 1972-73 to 112 in 1973-74. In the five schools, approximately 15 per cent of the student population are regular participants in the counselling during the school year and another five per cent are occasional participants (CDF, p. 99).

E) Class or School Transfer

Transfer may offer a teacher and/or student permanent time-out from personality conflicts, teaching-learning style

conflicts, or value or racial biases. Some students may need a transfer to another school to make a break from a clique of students which may be having a negative effect on their behaviour. Or the student may need to sever ties to a school where s/he has a bad reputation. Considering that many of the students who are suspended are either functioning below their grade level or are not achieving according to their potential and, further, that several of the studies found that these children had not been assessed by a school counsellor, transfer to another class, after a complete diagnostic assessment, may provide a more adequate placement.

F) Behaviour Intervention Centre

The BIC offers both a short-term and a long-term program for children with emotional or behavioural problems. The intent of this program is to assess the student's academic and psychological status, offer either short-term or long-term assistance and either help the student re-enter the home school or move into full-time institutional care. After an intensive initial observation and assessment, students referred to this program and their parents enter a "therapeutic relationship" with the staff of the centre. The short-term program is from four to six weeks during which the student and the family receive counselling and the student is tutored and receives work from the home school teacher. The long-term program takes students from one to two years and co-ordinates with a special education

teacher in a home school under whose guidance the student slowly re-enters the home school. The long-term program also offers family counselling, group counselling and a parenting course for families with children in the program. Staff consists of a social worker and a teacher/counsellor/psychologist for each group of six to 12 students. The program works conjointly with other community agencies.

The Behavioral Intervention Centre of the Calgary Public School Board reports that 81 per cent of the students who have participated in the BIC program return to their home schools without being suspended. Of the 81 per cent, more than half require minimal re-orientation at their home schools. Five per cent of the students leaving BIC are referred to other special educational environments. Another 14 per cent evidence minimal behavioural change and are often expelled, quit school, develop serious emotional difficulties or get in trouble with the law (Ewashen et al., 1988).

A similar program, the Bearspaw Centres in Calgary offer short-term withdrawal, guidance and remediation. In five years of operation two Bearspaw Centres have had 415 students in the program. The recidivism rate is approximately three per cent a year. Some 70 per cent of the students were returned to their regular program and the remaining 30 per cent were referred to an alternative educational program (Jones, 1985).

G) Support Centre

Also discussed in the literature is a special type of school in Great Britain and Australia, referred to as a "support centre" or "behavioural unit," for children with serious behaviour problems, histories of truancy or school phobia. In this instance the student is referred to a program within a special school on the recommendation of the headmaster or LEA and it may be a permanent transfer, although some students return to their parent school after a year or longer in a centre. Transfer to a centre is generally taken only after repeated serious misbehaviour and with consultation of school psychologists and/or school social workers; in some on-site centres headmasters refer students without further consultation. Mortimore and his colleagues (1983) state that support centres operate with differing mandates: some are run by voluntary agencies, supported by grants paid by the LEA, and reflect the particular emphasis of the agency; some are intermediate treatment centres run by social services departments; still others are educational guidance centres which are supervised by schools' psychological service administrators (Mortimore et al., p. 18).

Both the U.K. and Australia found that the need for "behavioural units" increased in proportion to the creation of the units. Mortimore and his colleagues (1983) report that there were 239 centres in England in 1978 and only two years later there were 439. While Mortimore et al. express the need for caution and revision of some of the programs, overall, they see

that the centres provide a necessary and mostly successful service. Louden (1985), on the other hand, writes that up until 1985 several social adjustment centres (withdrawal facilities) for primary school-aged children were in operation in Victoria, Australia. "A decision has been taken to close the units and to assist schools to cope with problems in ordinary settings. At the secondary level, six schools have within-school withdrawal units to undertake remedial support for children who are weak in basic skills (as well as exhibiting disturbing behaviour). Again, the discontinuance of this type of support has recently been recommended".

While all of the alternatives to suspension claim to reduce the number of suspensions, each is burdened with either negative consequences or cumbersome implementation difficulties. The Alternative School Network and Designs for Change prepared a comprehensive handbook for Chicago, Illinois parents which includes a discussion of alternatives for school discipline programs and advice and precautions for evaluating programs. As well, an appendix lists both advantages and disadvantages of over 20 approaches to discipline alternatives.[3]

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[3] Not Just Punishment: Discipline in Schools That Work is available through ERIC - ED 265 656.

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Preventive Approaches

Preventive approaches are advocated by educators who see any form of disciplinary segregation of students as counterproductive.

> The challenge to which educators and education administrations must respond is that of creating bonds in schools which encourage students to participate. Practices which aim for social control are not integrative. Crisis management or pastoral care programs fail to place the issue of discipline within the curriculum. Moreover, they tend to take students away from their peers for remediation, therapy, or counselling, thereby compounding the labels and marginality of these students. The task of integration is rendered far more problematic if the educator uses as his starting point separation. (Slee, 1986, p.98)

Some preventive approaches are described below.

A) Early identification of at-risk students

One possible strategy for preventing suspension is the early identification of at-risk students, based on their elementary school records. Students who have a history of serious behaviour conflicts can be identified at the beginning of grade 9 and offered staff or peer counselling, or an older student or staff mentor/facilitator for support.

Since so many students who are suspended are doing poorly in school, grade 9 booster programs and other early intervention to assist them academically might also contribute to preventing alienation and misbehaviour. Early identification programs do not appear to have been evaluated as potential suspension -

prevention programs, though they have proved useful in lowering drop-out rates.

B) In-service training for teachers and administrators

Such training focuses attention on "social literacy" issues. Programs teach individuals to recognize the system of social relationships, to analyze classroom discipline cycles and to break destructive discipline cycles through negotiated changes in relationships and rules.

C) Expanding conflict resolution strategies

Similar to A) above but with the added recognition that disruption in schools is unavoidable. Teachers can sometimes resolve conflicts through quiet conversation after class. Sometimes both student and teacher may need to appeal to another staff member with conflict resolution skills when a negotiated settlement cannot be reached within the classroom. A person to whom appeals can be addressed must be designated as a school resource person. The guiding principle here is that conflicts are more effectively resolved at the lowest level in the authority structure. Only when this appeal fails to bring about resolution is further action sought higher in the authority structure.

D) Improving relationships with parents

Vehicles include PTA's, open houses, community-school

activities and/or eliciting parental assistance in school programs. As stated in the Children's Defense Fund Report,

> giving parents a sense that they matter, that schools care about their children, which many do not now believe, may open the door in some cases to more consistent home-school handling of children with discipline problems (p.95).

Moreover, building bridges between homes and schools enables parents and teachers to share common goals, and to better understand and appreciate one another's objectives, frustrations and life circumstances. Students benefit from parental involvement in their activities and the enhancement of home-school accord.

E) Whole School Approach

This program involves eight strategies aimed at the prevention and resolution of student behaviour problems; it includes all school staff and administrators, all students and parents. The program is comprised of the following preventive/developmental activities and crisis/remedial interventions: 1) "Staff Development for a Humanistic School", 2) "Humanistic Activities in the Regular Classroom", 3) "Basic Encounter for Secondary School Students", 4) "Basic Encounter for School Personnel", 5) "Parent Training Groups", 6) "The Time-Out Room", 7) "A Student's School Survival Course", and 8) "A Student's Home Survival Course". The time-out room is a non-punitive crisis centre to which students may go voluntarily or by

referral where they can talk to a "facilitative listener" who will assist them to explore alternative behaviours and develop a specific plan for more productive behaviour. The student stays in the time-out room only long enough to receive counselling and to work out an effective plan; the average stay is four hours. The program is staffed by a school psychologist, a school counsellor, a social worker and a time-out room facilitator. The psychologist and social worker may be assigned to as many as five schools; the counsellor and time-out room worker are attached to one school.[4]

The original Positive Alternatives to Student Suspension (PASS) program in Pinellas County, Florida claimed very positive results for the first two years of the pilot study. Suspension rates in the pilot schools decreased significantly at the same time that rates rose in comparison schools. After the first two-year pilot study in three secondary schools, the program was fully extended to five schools and partially to another seven schools in Pinellas County. The records show that suspensions have decreased from a district high of 12,140 suspensions for 1972-73, which brought recognition to Pinellas County as one of the top fifteen districts in the United States, to 9,101

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[4] This program, known as "Positive Alternatives to Student Suspensions" (PASS), was originally developed in Pinellas County, Florida and has received national recognition in the United States. PASS materials and course outlines are available through ERIC (ED 165 347).

A description, summary of results and evaluation of a PASS program in Portland, Oregon (September 1984) is also available through ERIC (ED 256 772).

suspensions in 1973-74, 7,046 in 1974-75 and 5,754 for 1975-76. The first semester of 1976-77 indicated a further reduction of 33 per cent from the first semester of 1975-76. Statistically significant increases were also measured in student IQ scores, learning aptitude scores, and reading scores, as well as parent and teacher rating scale scores. In a cost comparison with other therapeutic programs, PASS operational costs per learner per month were significantly lower than any other (Bailey and Kackley, 1977).

F) Work-study Alternatives

Co-operative education programs combine secondary school work and vocational training. Students may spend as many as 20 hours a week at industrial or community work and the rest of their time, usually four hours of an eight hour weekday, studying reading, math, science and other academic or trade related subjects. In some cases students are paid for their work, in other programs they volunteer. There are various arrangements for schoolwork, from entirely individualized curriculum to small classes, with some schools giving credits toward a high school diploma for work accomplished while others require the completion of specified course material and the passing of standardized examinations. Depending on the program, students volunteer to participate, are referred or are recruited from among students who have dropped out of regular high schools.

The Industrial Skills Center (ISC) in Chicago, Illinois

began its work-study alternative program in 1969. The Children's Defense Fund reported that the program was serving 353 students in 1975 of whom 300 were known to the courts and 150 had actually served time in jail. In the six years of the program there had been no suspensions. "The school is well-kept, clean and completely devoid of any graffiti, vandalism or student abuse. This is particularly striking since many of the students at ISC had caused trouble in their previous schools, and there are major amounts of equipment in ISC's shop areas which could be easily stolen or vandalized," states the report (p. 103). Moreover, "student's reading scores and other skill levels have risen steadily. ... Attendance at ISC is higher than the average either for Chicago's general high schools or its vocational high schools" (pp. 104-5). The CDF also states that the program has been so successful that several judges have asked ISC to accept students who otherwise would spend time in jail (p. 105).

G) Alternative schools

These schools, with varying mandates, offer primary, elementary, junior high and senior high programs. Some serve as catchment schools for students who have been disruptive in school, who have been pregnant, who have dropped out, who have been suspended or expelled or have been apathetic and unsuccessful in school. Some specialize in small groups with individualized programs, others are traditional in their academic program. Some focus on parental involvement in a co-operative

school community. Alternative schools are usually characterized by exceptional student involvement: sometimes students participate in planning the philosophy and curriculum of the school and in the running of the school. Alternative schools also share the common characteristic of student, parent and teacher commitment to a specified goal in a notably relaxed atmosphere where there are strong, personal relationships between students and adults. These schools often have nonexistent to very low suspension rates. (See pages 9-11 above.)

Some authors cited in Mortimore et al. (1983) welcomed the British support centres as schools alternative to a too narrow traditional secondary school. Similarly, Louden et al.(1985) state that "Scandinavian authorities have encouraged the setting-up of alternative schools for students described as being tired of school'." They go on to say

> By granting or making available funds to different educational interest groups, the Scandinavians have developed a diverse range of secondary education institutions, which are organized to cater for markedly different client needs. In other words, Scandinavian educators have perceived disruptive behaviour to be a function of organizational constraints or rigidities, to be overcome by expanding the range of school 'types' (p. 15).

H) School Climate

"Student suspension is a matter of student misbehavior, but it is more a matter of how the school treats its students," state Wu and his co-writers (p. 272). Similarly, in discussing

contemporary perspectives on misbehaviour, Louden et al. (1985) state:

> What has emerged is a view that disruptive behaviour has to be seen as not just the sole responsibility of a particular student. It arises in reaction to other people and specific social situations. Hence it may be more fruitful to analyse the situations in which disruption occurs than to lodge blame for it with individuals. As the reviews of the literature on disruptive behaviour have indicated, the probability of disruptive behaviour is increased if students who are multiply disadvantaged find themselves in conflict with the norms schools have come to expect. While schools can do nothing to change the cultural background from which their students come, they can adapt the climate in which they operate to accommodate those differences (p. 9).

Louden goes on to say that: "The means of coming to terms with disruption lies not in the discovery of extravagant new forms of provision or more severe forms of discipline, but in people in schools (both staff and students) being able to make shifts in attitudes and to adjust the way schools, as social institutions, operate. ... The school, not the individual teacher, thus has to be the unit for tackling the problem of disruption" (Louden, 1985, p. 17). Adjusting the social climate of the school has been identified with the most effective positive change.

Programs such as those of Glasser (1969), Dreikurs (1968) and Kounin (1970) stress rational/democratic control methods in school and call for teacher and school development as the most efficacious way of coping with increasing disruption. Ausubel (1965) describes democratic discipline as rational, non-arbitrary and bilateral. He states that

> It provides explanations, permits discussion, and invites the participation of children in the setting of standards whenever they are qualified to do so. Above all, it implies respect for the dignity of the individual, and avoids exaggerated emphasis on status differences and barriers to free communication. Hence it repudiates harsh, abusive, and vindictive forms of punishment, and the use of sarcasm, ridicule, and intimidation. (Cited in Dettman, 1972, p. 98.)

Examples of guidelines for improving school climate and preventing suspension can be found in Appendices A and B.

Summary

Suspension, considered by many to be a poor choice among numerous discipline management alternatives, has in many jurisdictions become increasingly legally complex, costly to administer, publicly unpopular and an embarrassment to administrators. For all of these reasons many teachers, parents and administrators are reevaluating discipline policies and looking for more effective means to bring about positive discipline.

Three major directions of action have been identified in the literature: 1) substitution of in-school suspension programs; 2) development of alternative interventions to suspension; and 3) implementation of programs designed to promote positive student behaviour. In this report 20 specific programs have been described; others are discussed in the literature. All three courses of action have, of course, reduced the number of out-of-school suspensions. The various programs, however, while having

the reduction of suspensions as an objective, differ significantly in terms of concomitant objectives and underlying philosophies. Some educators maintain that students must be punished for misbehaviour; others argue that misbehaving students require guidance and special academic support; still others see behaviour in terms of social dynamics all of which play a part in determining the relationship a student has to school, teachers and fellow students.

Although the literature reports both program descriptions and some evaluative statistics, as Chobot and Garibaldi (1982) state, no objective evaluation mechanism has been developed to assess program effectiveness and no study has empirically compared one course of action with another. In other words, as yet, there have been no studies which measure or compare the relative effectiveness of disciplinary methods. Neither, in Canada, is there any data comparing the cost of suspension to its alternatives. At this point in time, administrators are left with the job of reviewing their own disciplinary programs, surveying the literature and making decisions based on compatibility with existing policies, administrative style and school and community consensus.

PART 3: **Conclusion**

It has been suggested that the task of finding alternative strategies to suspension involves two steps. The first is a critical examination of the needs of each school community; the second is using the information on existing programs to determine how they met the needs of the particular schools in which they are located and how they might be modified or used in other schools (Williams, 1979). Implied in the latter is a concern about being cognizant of the educational philosophy and views of discipline of the parents, teachers, administrators and students. Discussions with all concerned must be held as part of the examination process (Mizell, 1978).

The information presented in this paper should be a starting point for these two tasks. First, it indicates generally that suspensions and withdrawals do not occur in all Toronto Board of Education schools, nor do they occur to the same degree in those schools where they are used. Furthermore, suspensions and withdrawals are disproportionately distributed according to gender, age and grade; they are most frequent among 14 year-old male pupils in grade nine. Finally, a variety of alternatives to suspension are available and can be considered by schools and supervisory staff.

APPENDIX A

Descriptive recommendations concerning school climate and suspension prevention given in the Australian Dettman Committee Report, 1972.

1. Students should have access to a statement of school rules. These rules should be formulated in accordance with definite educational principles and should reflect policies with respect to behaviour both inside and outside the classroom. (p. 69)

2. School councils consisting of administrators, staff, students and parents should be established in all secondary schools to allow annual involvement in the formation, implementation and revision of school rules. (p. 74)

3. Secondary school principals should establish written and oral procedures to acquaint all students with school rules and policies at the beginning of each school year and as necessary thereafter. (p. 75)

4.1 Secondary schools should provide all students with information booklets containing details of school operation, administration and organization at the beginning of each school year and as necessary thereafter. These booklets should contain, in addition to student information, explanations to inform parents of school procedures and requirements.

4.2 These information booklets should contain copies of school rules together with the reasons for their establishment.

4.3 Information booklets should contain information specifically directed to parents. This should include statements regarding school expectations with regard to dress, appearance and behaviour; matters regarding parent-school communication and co-operation; information relating to course selection and curriculum content; and policy with regard to the parents' role in the educative process. (p. 77)

5. The Education Department should adopt measures to

ensure that school administrators are adequately informed on the nature and extent of their legal powers and duties. (p. 85)

6. Where a student attending a secondary school continuously misbehaves, the principal should invite the parents to discuss the student's future in the school. (p. 93)

7.1 The principal of a secondary school should be empowered to suspend from the school for a period of up to five days a student who is guilty of a serious breach of school discipline.

7.2 In the case of suspension for serious breaches of school discipline, the parents of the student should be notified immediately and requested to visit the school to discuss the problem. In the case of oral notification, written notification must follow immediately.

7.3 No suspension exceeding five school days should be made without the approval of the Director-General of Education. (p.93)

10.1 The Education Department should examine measures for remedying discipline problems by providing facilities within the school to which extremely deviant students may be withdrawn for special supervision and counselling. (p. 170)

10.2 The Education Department should take steps to effect an extension of the work of guidance officers and an increased frequency of medical examinations. These could give particular emphasis to the identification and modification of special learning difficulties and to the extremely maladaptive behaviour among children in primary and secondary schools. (p. 171)

11. The Education Department should give every encouragement to the development within secondary schools of administrative schemes designed to foster pastoral care of students. (p. 194)

12. The Education Department should encourage administrative decentralization ("schools within schools") within large secondary schools to provide for a greater measure of student/administrator contact and to assist in reducing the impersonal atmosphere that can be associated with larger school administration.

(p. 207)

13. School principals should give consideration to the differential treatment of upper and lower school students [junior and senior high students in Australian secondary schools, and the same would pertain to junior and senior elementary students in Ontario] with respect to the use of physical facilities, the planning of social and recreational activities and the compilation of school rules. This differentiation should take into account the varying interests, needs, abilities and maturity of both groups. (p. 211)

14.1 The Education Department and school principals should give every encouragement to the establishment of freely elected and representative student councils.

14.2 Principals should give student councils meaningful responsibilities for decision-making in the areas of student behaviour, social , sporting and recreational matters and student dress and appearance, and the opportunity to express opinions on curriculum and school organization. The responsibilities of councils should be exercised in consultation with the principal and staff members of the school.

14.3 Due recognition should be given to the need for variety in approach according to the situation and the experience and abilities of the staff and students. (p. 220)

16.1 The fullest measure of support should be given to the development of new teaching strategies for the conduct of human relations workshops within secondary schools.

16.3 The practice of involving parents and citizens in human relations workshops in the capacity of discussion leaders should be encouraged and extended where possible. (p. 244)

17.1 Every encouragement should be given at both a Departmental and a school level for the continued development of a well-planned and effectively operated program of extra-curricular activities.

17.2 School councils composed of parents, teachers and students should be encouraged to take responsibility in the planning, operation and revision of extra-curricular activities for their schools. (p. 247)

20. The Education Department should set up a committee

to examine and suggest modifications to practices with regard to practical teaching experience within the pre-service education period for teachers. (p. 261)

21. In each school, well-defined induction procedures for new teachers should be drawn up co-operatively by staff and administrators to complement and support measures which should be carried out at a system level by central office administrators and teacher's college staffs. (p. 264)

22. The practice of holding staff meetings at all levels should be encouraged and extended wherever possible. (p. 269)

23. Where schools assess such a need, students at the lower end of the ability range should have as many subjects as possible combined under one teacher. (p. 273)

24. The services of trained social workers should be made available to assist in the counselling of students and to provide a liaison between the home, the school and other welfare agencies. (p. 285)

25. The Education Department should appoint officers trained in vocational guidance procedures to have responsibility for examining the career opportunities available to maladaptive students. These officers, in co-operation with social workers and school guidance officers, should co-ordinate and direct efforts aimed at placing them in suitable employment. (p. 286)

26. The Education Department should institute measures whereby the efforts of guidance staff may be co-ordinated with those of social workers to ensure that every opportunity is given to maladaptive students to enable them to take advantage of career opportunities. (p. 286)

28. The Education Department should encourage secondary schools to make greater use of parent interviews in dealing with student problems. (p. 291)

APPENDIX B

Strategies suggested in Principal's Annual Reports on School and Classroom Management and Discipline from the London Board of Education Alternatives for School and Classroom Management and Discipline: A Resource Booklet for Principals, Vice Principals and Teachers. Onteris Document - ON 03299.

For the past several years the Operation Department has conducted a survey of Principals and staffs on the state of school and classroom management and discipline. Opinions on what has improved discipline in our schools have been sought. Over several years the following strategies have been considered to be successful by principals.

(a) Attention has been given to program to meet the individual needs of students.

(b) The staff has worked together in a consistent manner toward common goals. This implies that the goals are understood, the staff is committed to them and they are working together consistently to enforce them.

(c) School routines are well-planned and understood by staff and pupils.

(d) There is a well-organized extra curricular program.

(e) The school has sought actively parent involvement and support in its program. This would include discipline rules and procedures.

(f) Continued efforts have been made to establish positive attitudes within the school through praise, recognition, activities to develop school spirit, and recognition of individual students in order to build positive self-concepts and reinforce desirable behaviour.

(g) Team effort has been used to deal with the difficult individual problem. The teacher and/or principal has not been left to solve the problem on his own. School Special Services teams have recognized

that discipline cases that interfere with learning are legitimately a part of their responsibility.

(h) Supervision policies e.g. yard, locker bay, halls, extra-curricular activities are understood clearly and carried out in a team effort. Teachers are supported in their efforts in this area.

(i) The Administrators in the school are highly visible and seen as supportive.

(j) Timetabling and class group organization take the discipline factors into account.

(k) Effective communication processes are established by principals and staff to air and discuss discipline and management difficulties. Problems do not remain unaddressed or "under the table".

(l) At the appropriate time, the student body is involved through its elected representatives in a role in formulating policy and communicating such to the students.

(m) Clear procedures have been developed for dealing with student absences. These policies are followed consistently and are communicated effectively to parents and students.

(n) Early involvement of parents is realized in the most serious cases.

(o) Curriculum and program are updated to remove those activities that are non-motivating, irrelevant and out of date.

(p) Discipline and management matters appear regularly on professional activity and staff meeting agendas, with ongoing exploration of better management techniques.

(q) Positive rewards and recognition are developed for students who display the role of good citizens in the school.

(r) At appropriate levels, the Student Council and School Administration work together in a positive, co-operative relationship.

APPENDIX C

Population by grade, Toronto Board of Education Schools, 1986-1987.

Grade	Enrollment
Kindergarten	4301
1	4501
2	4009
3	3657
4	3621
5	3488
6	3392
7	3300
8	3301
9	6838
10	6466
11	6391
12	5552
13	5002

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